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ABSTRACT

Publications addressing the training of learners and the improvement of learning strategies are reviewed. This literature includes materials directed at the learner himself and at teachers, who are in turn expected to pass insights on to the learners. The literature also includes both formal language training techniques and the experiential learning of language. The publications include general study skills guides, a guidebook for self-instruction, a guide specifically for language learning, a monograph for Peace Corps volunteers, an English-as-a-Second-Language learner training course, teacher guides on learning strategies, learning styles, program reports emphasizing autonomous and self-directed instruction in several countries, learner training textbooks, and a prospective book on the role of the teacher in learner training. It is concluded that the current focus on learning strategies and the shift in teacher roles does not diminish the need for the teacher but rather increases it, requiring extra teacher attention to the support of more effective learning. (MSE)

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Learner Strategies: The Role of the Teacher

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Perhaps fifteen years ago, the message began to appear in the professional literature that there is value in focusing on language learning strategies and learner strategy training (e.g., Rubin 1975, Stern 1975). Fifteen years later, it has now become relatively fashionable to speak about training language learners in the use of language learning strategies.[2] But although it has become fashionable to speak about language learner training, the actual training of learners to be better language learners is still being conducted in relatively few places in the world (see Oxford 1990, Oxford, Cohen, Crookall, Lavine, & Sutter 1989). Perhaps now there will be a shift to greater application of learner training in the instructional process as the available books on the topic have become noticeably more abundant. Commensurate with this shift, there is a need to train teachers in their new role as learner trainer.

Books and monographs dealing with learner strategies and learner training in target-language have tended to represent a dramatic departure from those volumes aimed at the training of language **teachers** -- e.g., works by Allen and Valette (1977), Rivers (1981b), and Omaggio (1986). In these "how-to-teach" volumes, reference to learner strategies and to what learners can

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[1] Paper prepared for presentation in the Symposium on FLT Methodology and Teacher Education, 9th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Thessaloniki, Greece, April 15-21.

[2] **Learning strategies** are viewed as learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner. The element of **choice** is important here because this is what gives a strategy its special character. These are also moves which the learner is at least partially aware of, even if full attention is not being given to them. For example, a learner may use the strategy of skimming a portion of text in order to avoid a lengthy illustration. If a learner's move is totally unconscious, then it would simply be referred to as a "process," and not a "strategy."

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do to improve their language learning are treated briefly and primarily as a complement to the many suggestions regarding the teaching act.

For instance, within the context of what teachers can do to teach a language skill, there may appear tips for better learning, such as when Allen and Valette provide tips for vocabulary acquisition (1977:155ff). At times, the steps for teaching strategies for improving a skill may even be listed (e.g., Omaggio 1986:170-171, who lists reading strategies from Hosenfeld et al. 1981). In addition, the issue of learner strategies may be raised in discussion questions (e.g., Rivers 1981b:80ff) or in suggested activities (e.g., Rivers 1981b:218-219). Hence, there is some mention of learner strategies, particularly in the revised editions, but the emphasis is secondary.

In the **learner** training publications, the focus is more directly and especially on the learner and improving learner strategies. On occasion, the influential studies have been reports of research -- for example, that of Naiman, Frolich, Stern, and Todesco (1975). Although this monograph did not deal directly with learner training, the focus was on finding out more about the successful language learning experience by extensive learner interviews and case studies,classroom observation, and teacher questionnaires. This study was a pioneering effort in that many of the techniques used were innovative at the time, and the findings gave much food for thought to researchers. There then followed other smaller-scale studies, usually case studies, such as Wilga River's study of her learning of Spanish (Rivers 1979) and Schmidt's (1984) study of a learner. Studies such as these also contributed to our understanding of learning strategies. In recent years, many such cases studies of language learning strategies have appeared -- in itself a validation of the importance of this type of work.

The published materials relating specifically to learner training mostly range from those aimed primarily at language learners to those intended for teachers, who in turn are expected to pass on insights to the learners. Likewise, the publications range from those with an emphasis on the study of a language in a formal classroom environment to those focusing on the learning of a language in the field. Let us take a brief look at some volumes that have appeared.

The Learner as Intended Audience

The early books mentioning the learning of a target language tended to have as their emphasis the general area of good study habits, rather than a specific focus on that which makes the learning of language skills different from the learning of other kinds of skills. Two of these books were Yorkey's (1970) Study skills for students of English as a second language and Martin, McChesney, Whalley, and Devlin's (1977) Guide to language and study skills for college students of English as a second

language.[3] While both of these books have sections on developing vocabulary skills -- the latter being somewhat more complete (e.g., mention of how to prepare vocabulary cards); their major thrust is on study skills for college (note-taking, test taking, library skills, and the writing of term papers).

1. A Guidebook for Self-Instruction in Isolated Areas. One of the early books to focus specifically on the learning of another language was Language acquisition made practical (Brewster & Brewster 1976), written primarily for missionaries and others working in locations in the world where they would essentially be on their own, learning the local language and culture with the assistance of local interpreters.[4]

The Brewster and Brewster book provides a detailed day-by-day program for learning a language, including directions as to how to chart daily progress. Despite its many fine features, the book espouses a rather lockstep approach which is not consistent with some current thought and practice in the field. There is, for example, a premium put on extensive mimicry and other mechanical language drills. Also, learners are told to learn new words only in meaningful sentences whereas learning of words in word lists may be a practical and efficient way of learning certain basic vocabulary (see discussion in next chapter). No mention is made of the use of flashcards or mnemonic devices (see Ch. 2). Learners are also discouraged from seeking translations for words because of the lack of accurate equivalents across languages, whereas at the early stages of learning a succinct translation may be quite helpful.

The claim the authors make is that by means of the book, users will not only learn a new language but will also learn how to learn languages. Their claim is probably justified, with the qualifier that users will essentially be learning one system for learning a language. Current learner training materials are less prescriptive, catering more to differences in learning styles.

2. A Brief Manual for Prospective Language Learners

A second book, How to be a more successful language learner (Rubin & Thompson 1982), appeared at a time when interest was beginning to grow in the differences among language learners --

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[3] There are, of course, those books directed at general study habits, such as those by Deese and Deese 1979, Casey, 1985, and Chibnall 1987, just to mention a few. Such volumes characteristically have a brief section on how to read more effectively (especially with respect to the reading of textbooks), how to take lecture and reading notes, and how to write term papers. Actually, the book by Deese and Deese also has a brief section on studying a foreign language (84-92), in which the authors make passing mention of some important areas of concern, such as dictionary use, word analysis, the learning of cognates, the use of flash cards, and the mastery of grammar.

[4] I can relate personally to this kind of an experience as I was a Peace Corps volunteer for two years on the High Plains of Bolivia, and learned the local language, Aymara, largely through the assistance of local informants.

why some succeed at target-language learning while others fail. Rubin actually began her own observational research into the topic over a decade before the book appeared. She would sit in on language classes in French, German, and other languages, and pay attention almost exclusively to learners and what they were doing -- at a time when the field was paying almost exclusive attention to the teachers. In 1975, her influential article, "What the 'good language learner' can teach us" appeared, followed in the same year by a similar article written by Stern. Perhaps that year marked a decided shift in focus away from the teacher in favor of greater concern for the learner and learning strategies.

The book by Rubin and Thompson devotes its first section to the role of learner characteristics in language learning, objectives for language learning, the instructional setting, and the nature of language. The second section is devoted to strategies for being a better language learner such as organizing, being creative, making intelligent guesses, and learning formalized routines. The last section is concerned with aids for language learning -- such as textbooks, dictionaries, and tapes. While the book provides only brief mention of each of these topics -- brevity which may have limited the book's usefulness to the learner somewhat -- Rubin has most recently produced a videodisc program for training language learning strategies, known as the "Language Learning Disc" (Rubin 1987).

The program, designed for adults (high school and above), is presented on a two-sided (one-hour) interactive video disc with five accompanying diskettes providing an average of eight hours of instruction. The video disc program provides training in language learning -- e.g., learning how to select appropriate strategies for use in the particular learning context, make better use of memory, deal more effectively with errors, and use resources wisely. The disc provides an opportunity for the student to choose the language, topic, and level of difficulty from a wide variety of languages for their interactive exercises which are embedded in a number of dramatic scenarios.

3. A Monograph Directed at a Specific Population

By the mid-1980s, Rebecca Oxford had become quite active in the field of learner strategies and learner strategy research. One of her main concerns was that of classifying types of strategies in the form of a taxonomy (Oxford 1985). Shortly thereafter, she and her colleagues produced a brief monograph for Peace Corps volunteers who need to learn a foreign language for use in their country of assignment. The monograph, entitled Improving your language learning: Strategies for Peace Corps volunteers (Grala, Oxford, & Schleppegrell 1987), dealt with common questions about language learning (e.g., age, best way, mistakes, lack of understanding, time to master, and success), general management strategies, organizing to learn, building memory, and learning in different contexts.

4. A Course in Learner Training

This course entitled Learning to learn English: A course in learner training (student's book, cassette tape, and teacher's book; Ellis & Sinclair 1989) is intended for lower-intermediate

to intermediate level learners of English, and is meant to be flexible, so that it could either be integrated into a course of language instruction or used separately in learner training sessions. Learners are to determine which areas they will focus on and then record their needs, priorities, aims, and progress. The course starts with preparation for learning: expectations, learning styles, needs, organization, and motivation. Then it treats the skill areas: vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. A variety of strategies are presented, along with frequent quotes from learners who use these strategies. While the teacher's book has an introduction to the theory of learner training, there is no overt research basis to the specific techniques that are presented to the students.

The Teacher as Intended Audience

There have also appeared a series of books and monographs directed primarily at the teacher, with the intention that the teacher will provide the training for the learner -- whether this training takes the form of (1) a separate workshop or mini-course, (2) a prelude to a language course, (3) material presented during the course and integrated into it, (4) material presented during the course but separate from actual language instruction.

1. A Guidebook of Learner Strategies for ESL

One of the early learner-strategy guidebooks written for teachers of ESL was prepared by Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, and Russo (1983). It emphasized strategies for learning how to understand and speak the language, with the strategies intended for application both to activities occurring "in ESL classrooms, and to language activities occurring outside formal language learning environments." The guide was divided into two parts: (1) definitions of various types of cognitive and metacognitive strategies[5] and examples of how they are used by students, and (2) specific examples of how the learning strategies can be taught in the context of the teacher's ongoing instructional program, with the intent that learners become active, independent users of the strategies wherever they see opportunities to do so. The authors warn that certain strategies may be most useful only with certain types of learning activities or for certain types of students.

An example of a metacognitive strategy would be that of "self-management" -- e.g., students identify learning preferences such as listening to and speaking on favorite topics and directing conversations to their own areas of interest. Here is an example from a student:

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[5] The authors define **cognitive strategies** as involving the direct application of a strategy to the information to be learned. **Metacognitive strategies** are defined as involving thought about the learning process or the regulation of learning, entailing the use of planning, monitoring, or evaluation of a learning activity.

> (To facilitate social communication,) I try to choose the topic of conversation. For instance, I know a lot about football, so I choose this as a topic for conversation with friends. I can have a friendly conversation when I initiate the theme of it. (Stewner-Manzanares et al. 1983, Part II, 5)

An example of a cognitive strategy would be that of the use of "imagery" -- relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable images. Here is an example from a student:

> We make a log of drawings in class to illustrate what we are studying, writing in the dates of each event. We have made a whole series of pictures to illustrate an idea, and this helps communicate the meaning. Looking at the pictures helps us recall the meaning...(Stewner-Manzanares et al. 1983, Part II, 22)

2. A Guidebook with a Focus on Learning Styles

Another guide for teachers, that written by Willing (teachers guide and activity worksheets; Willing 1989), also appeared recently. While the primary focus is on learner training, the teachers' guide includes a few activities intended for in-service teacher training, teacher self-study, or as a lead-in to the material. The author stresses that learners differ in their learning styles and that teachers need to accommodate to these different styles. A research study conducted by the author (Willing 1985) had found that there were essentially four learning-strategy types: communicative (e.g., learning by listening to natives, talking to friends, or using the language in shops), concrete (e.g., learning by games, pictures, or using cassettes at home), authority-oriented (e.g., learning through teaching explanations, writing everything in a notebook, reading, or studying grammar), analytical (e.g., learning by studying grammar, studying alone, finding own mistakes, or doing homework).

The first part of the handbook deals with managing the learning process, and includes activities to help learners become aware of the nature of language and language learning, and of their own preferences, habits, strengths, and weaknesses as learners. The topics covered include learning plans, managing communicative situations, practicing, and monitoring. The second part of the handbook deals with managing information, and is aimed at encouraging learners to take more responsibility for planning and evaluating their own learning. The focus is on information-processing strategies (selective attending, associating, categorizing, pattern learning, and inferencing).

3. Reports of Programs Emphasizing Autonomous and Self-Directed Instruction

Three volumes have recently appeared which emphasize programs in self-directed learning, where the teachers give less frontal instruction and instead assume other kinds of roles -- i.e., counselor, materials preparer, program developer, researcher, and evaluator.

a. Self-Directed Learning in Australia. One such monograph for teachers was written by Helmore (1987). The monograph defines and describes self-directed learning as "the opposite of teacher-directed learning" -- an approach whereby "learners make decisions, alone or with the help of others, about what they need or want to know, how they will set objectives for learning, what resources and strategies they will use, and how they will assess their progress" (Helmore 1987:6). Then, the planning of the course, the nature of counseling sessions, the drawing up of learning contracts, monitoring of learning, and self-assessment are conducted through interaction between the learner and the staff. Two reports have also been issued regarding the Self-Directed learning course, one an evaluation (Helmore 1985a) and the other a set of three case studies of representative learners within the program (Helmore 1985b).

b. Self-Instruction in Europe and Scandinavia. A second volume on autonomous learning, written by Dickinson (1987), is primarily based on programs of self-instruction developed by the Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pêdagogiques en Langues (CRAPEL) in the University of Nancy II, France; the Open Access Sound and Video Library at Cambridge University; and the Scottish Centre for Education Overseas in Moray House College of Education, Edinburgh. The book describes what self-instruction is ("situations in which a learner, with others or alone, is working without the direct control of a teacher") and why it is useful.

The Dickinson volume then looks at facilitation of learning through self-instructional systems, materials for self-instruction, learner support through analysis of learner needs and learner contracts, self-access resources, preparation of teachers and learners for self-instruction, and self-assessment (i.e., the selection of formative assessment measures for self-monitoring, but also for placement and diagnostic purposes as well). While this book pays only passing mention to actual learner strategies detailed in other volumes (Dickinson 1987:130-131), it sets the stage for them by describing types of self-instruction programs where such learner training is in many ways essential.

c. Autonomous Learning in Europe and Scandinavia

The third volume on autonomous learning, edited by Holec (1988), constitutes a collection of twelve reports, each describing some effort at autonomous and self-directed learning in secondary schools and universities in the United Kingdom, elsewhere in Europe, and in Scandinavia.

1) A report by Dam and Gabrielsen (1988) describes a six-year project in which Danish school children from the fifth to the tenth form at the Danmarks Laererhojskole, Copenhagen, planned, organized, and evaluated their classroom learning of English as a foreign language. The learners had as class objectives to develop: (1) strategies for use in learning in class and outside, (2) a realistic concept of their own capacity to learn and how to learn, (3) awareness of their own role and that of others in the learning-teaching process (cooperative strategies, peer tutoring), and (4) a sense of responsibility for

social aspects of classroom interaction. The learners were involved in developing materials which encouraged self-expression and which were open to elaboration. With regard to evaluation, the learners answered the questions, "What are we/am I doing? Why? How? What is it used for?"

While the learners' achievement on exams was reported to be similar to that of learners in traditional classrooms, the learners in the program felt more secure about their learning and were more motivated to learn. **The program showed that learners could be more involved in non-trivial decision making and take more responsibility for their learning in school.**

2) Huttunen (1988) reports a similar program of autonomous language learning at the senior secondary school of Lassinkallion lukio in Oulu, Northern Finland, from 1982 to 1985, where students took increased initiative and responsibility for the learning of three foreign languages at the same time -- English, Swedish, and German. The learners monitored the choice of materials, the performance of work, participation in activities, homework, and presentation of the results. At the top level (level 3), the learners gave themselves their grade for the course, along with a justification. Whereas the overall performance of the pupils on the matriculation exam was no different from that of pupils in the standard language courses, the experimental group was better at communicative ability as measured by written composition, as well as being better on grammar tests. While still maintaining the role as final arbiter, **the seven participating teachers shifted from being leaders of activities to "help and resource person."** The teachers also became more aware of their attitudes, and areas where they lacked skills or experience.

3) Muller, Schneider, and Wertenschlag (1988) reported on a different kind of autonomous program, namely that of tandem learning -- the learning of language by exchange. At the University of Fribourg, Fribourg, Switzerland, pairs of learners were reported to be meeting for 2-to-3-hour sessions each week in order to teach the other his/her language (i.e., German, French, or English, and occasionally, Italian or Spanish) for an equal amount of the time. The report indicated that such meetings often included spontaneous, relaxed conversation over drinks and joint reading of articles. The sessions either were integrated into the language courses, accompanied them, or were detached from any particular course, with the partners fixing their own objectives and methods.

Muller et al. reported that most of such tandem arrangements (70%) have proven successful. On the plus side, **students have found that tandem learning allows them to have extended, relaxed learning sessions where they can feel responsible for their own learning.** On the minus side, students have mentioned the lack of materials to give the session structure. In addition, students sometimes disagree on certain issues such as how to handle correction for style and grammar. In general, the system has been found to make participants more sensitive to the problems not only of learning, but of teaching as well.

4) Gremmo (1988) reports on an evaluation of a program for self-directed learning of EFL in effect for twelve years at

the University of Nancy II: the Systéme d'Apprentissage Auto-dirigé avec Soutien (SAAS). A questionnaire was distributed to a small sampling of learners who had gone through the program (N=19) in an effort to get honest answers to questions regarding difficulties in learning (e.g., scheduling, methods, programs, studying individually), areas of success and failure (e.g., progress in English, ability to work alone), and any suggestions for improving the program. While most of the respondents were positive in their responses, some felt that they lacked motivation and were even somewhat traumatized by having to learn at home on their own. While all learners received group counseling on how to learn, several felt that what they had learned about "learning how to learn" was not adequate for their needs.

d. Textbooks on Learner Strategies and Learner Training

Perhaps the first textbook to appear on the topic of learner strategies is that of Wenden and Rubin (1987), Learner strategies in language learning, which grew out of a series of TESOL colloquia on the topic and which was perhaps intended as much for researchers as for teachers. This volume has an important feature which distinguishes it from other volumes. It provides both a theoretical overview in chapters by Wenden ("Conceptual Background and Utility") and Rubin ("Learner Strategies: Theoretical Assumptions, Research History and Typology"), as well as six empirical in-depth studies on different approaches to language learning (written by Thompson, Cohen, Chamot, Abraham & Vann, Wenden, and Horowitz respectively) and three chapters on experiments in learner training (written by O'Malley, Holec, and Wenden respectively). This compendium of research articles has helped not only to provide information regarding learner strategies and how to train learners to use them, but also to further legitimize that area of target-language research dealing with what learners have to say about their language learning and what they do about it.

The second textbook for teachers on learner strategies and learner training is that of Rebecca Oxford, Language learner strategies: What every teacher should know (1990). The Oxford book integrates the theoretical underpinnings of the learner strategy literature with practical suggestions for teachers concerning how to train their students to be more successful language learners. The book presents the taxonomy of learner strategies mentioned above, offers means for assessing students' learning strategies, and provides a model for strategy training accompanied by numerous strategy training exercises. The concept of learner training is exemplified by a chapter describing a number of actual learner training projects.

A field testing of the book also helped to shed some light on the issue of whether it pays to integrate learner training with classroom instruction or to detach such training from the regular classroom activities. The field assessment revealed that incorporating strategy training exercises into regular classroom activities and treating learning strategies as a means of enhancing progress students were already making, was more beneficial than having the exercises constitute a separate entity, disconnected from ongoing classroom work.

Another textbook which has recently appeared is that by O'Malley and Chamot, Learning strategies in second language acquisition (1990). The book considers the contribution of cognitive theory to an understanding of the research on learning strategies, and looks at the role of strategies in second language instruction. The book is intended to respond to the need among second language teachers for guidance on how to present instruction that capitalizes on the knowledge and skills that learners already possess, while encouraging the learners to develop new and more effective strategies for learning. The authors review the literature on learning strategies and present an instructional model for learning-strategy training, the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), which teachers can apply to their own classes. Their model for learner training was developed and field tested with numerous groups of learners.

A Book Written for Learners, Teachers, and Researchers

A book is about to appear which combines audiences (Cohen 1990). The first audience is that of **learners** who are in the process of learning a target language,[6] either individually or in group. The second audience is that of **teachers** and **teacher-trainers** of a target language who are interested in training language learners to become more aware of how to make better use of their time as learners. The third audience is that of **researchers** who are interested in areas of investigation regarding the learning of a target language.

The book is written in the same spirit as the Wenden & Rubin and Oxford books, with a blending of theory and practice. Unlike the other two volumes, it focuses in detail on just a few selected areas of language learning strategies -- essentially those that have interested the author as a researcher over the years. Hence, the book does not represent a survey of possibilities in learner training, as the Oxford book does, but rather is reflective of my particular research interests. The reader will, for example, note that certain language learning strategies are emphasized more in the discussion of one language skill than in the discussion of another. Hence, vocabulary learning is discussed with an emphasis on **recall** strategies, conversational discourse in terms of **attending** strategies on the aural side and **synthesizing**[7] strategies on the oral side, reading

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[6] In this book, the language to be learned will be referred to by the inclusive term, **target language**. The intention is to include both **second-language learning**, the learning of a language that is spoken in the community in which it is being learned, and **foreign-language learning**, the learning of a language that is not spoken in the local community. Even though the two situations are subsumed under the same rubric, **target language**, we must bear in mind that there are important differences between the two learning situations -- with the former, second-language learning, implying more direct exposure to the language being learned.

[7] A cover term for the strategies used in bringing together and utilizing language material for the purpose of oral language communication.

largely from the point of view of **self-awareness** and **monitoring**, and writing from the perspective of **modeling** and **feedback** (see Figure 1).

The Role of the Teacher in Learner Training

It has become clear both to the teacher and to their learners who spend many long hours in language classrooms, that the mastery of -- or even a rudimentary ability in -- a new language may well be painfully elusive. Even innovative teaching methods may well fall short in that the learners do not do what is appropriate for them in order to succeed at the method. Hence, some shift in the role of the teacher in the classroom appears to be in order. One potentially beneficial shift in teacher role is from that of being exclusively the manager, controller, and instructor to that of being to some extent a flexible, creative partner in the learning process.

The following is a list of some of the teacher roles that reflect a partnership approach to target language learning (based in part on Tyacke 1990, Oxford 1990, and Willing 1989):

- **change agent** -- facilitator of learning; helping students to be more independent.
- **diagnostician** -- identifying the students' current learning strategies and making the learner more aware of them so as to improve the learner's choice and utilization of these and other strategies; heightening learners' awareness as to how they learn best.
- **learner trainer** -- conducting training with his/her pupils regarding learning strategies.
- **collaborator/coach** -- working with each individual to develop the best program of language study for him/her.
- **coordinator** of the learners' individual study program -- supporting changes in direction as necessary, allowing a fluid syllabus with unstructured situations.
- **classroom researcher** -- analyzing the learning along with the learners, pointing up the changes; keeping records (e.g., as to the learning style of the learner, choice of activity, and outcome).
- **consultant/adviser** -- providing guidance in all areas of concern to the learners on an ongoing basis (through conferencing, dialog journals, and so forth).
- **language learner** -- the best language teachers are often those who put themselves in the role of language learner so as not to forget what the experience of language learning entails.[8]

The degree to which the strategies are explicitly presented to learners as opposed to being built implicitly into the

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[8] Some prominent teacher-training programs actually require of their students that they take a semester or more of a target language -- ideally one that is completely unlike any that they have already studied.

language learning material is a matter of teacher choice. For example, a teacher may prefer to train learners explicitly in strategies for learning new vocabulary words rather than simply leaving it to the learners to pick up such strategies. Firstly, it may be a matter of teacher preference -- i.e., explicit attention to the given strategy is the most comfortable approach or seems to produce the best results for that teacher. Secondly, it may be a matter of the complexity of demands put upon the learner in processing the given instructional material -- i.e., explicit attention to a given strategy could help to avoid the distraction of associated language processing and may also enhance the transfer of that strategy to use in situations where formal learning is not going on (Willing 1989). Thirdly, it may depend on the nature of the strategy itself in that certain strategies may be difficult to learn implicitly.

With respect to this last reason for explicit training, let us take the example of the mnemonic keyword device for remembering a vocabulary word. A mnemonic keyword involves both an acoustic link -- a native-language word or phrase (the keyword) that is similar in sound to part or all of the target-language word, and an imagery link -- an image of the keyword "interacting" with the native-language word or phrase. Although learners sometimes devise these on their own while engaged in vocabulary learning activities, the strategy involved is complex enough that explicit instruction in its use may be advisable. Such instruction may take no more than fifteen minutes but could be more beneficial than mere exposure to such a strategy with no explicit training in its use.

Concluding Remarks

This paper has called attention to the increasing body of literature on language learner strategies and learner training. In addition, the various new roles that the teacher can assume have been identified. This shift in the teacher's set of roles in no way diminishes the need for the teacher. Rather, it increases the need for a teacher, and one who is potentially far busier in the role of supporting the learner in more effective learning than he/she was in the role of "fountain of knowledge." It now remains for language teaching programs around the world to pay more heed to the contributions that learner training has made to language learning in those sites that have been willing to endorse it in one or another form (see Oxford 1990, Ch. 7).

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